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Vann et al.: Variation in teosinte at the tb1 locus

# Natural variation in teosinte at the domestication locus $teosinte\ branched1\ (tb1)^1$

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#### Abstract

- 2 Premise of the study: The teosinte branched1 (tb1) gene is a major QTL controlling branching
- 3 differences between maize and its wild progenitor, teosinte. The insertion of a transposable
- 4 element (Hopscotch) upstream of tb1 is known to enhance the gene's expression, causing reduced
- 5 tillering in maize. Observations of the maize tb1 allele in teosinte and estimates of an insertion
- 6 age of the Hopscotch that predates domestication led us to investigate its prevalence and
- 7 potential role in teosinte.
- 8 Methods: Prevalence of the Hopscotch element was assessed across an Americas-wide sample of
- 9 837 maize and teosinte individuals using a co-dominant PCR assay. Population genetic summaries
- 10 were calculated for a subset of individuals from four teosinte populations in central Mexico.
- 11 Phenotypic data were also collected using seed from a single teosinte population where Hopscotch
- 12 was found segregating at high frequency.
- 13 Key results: Genotyping results indicate the Hopscotch element is found in a number of teosinte
- 14 populations and linkage disequilibrium near tb1 does not support recent introgression from maize.
- 15 Population genetic signatures are consistent with selection on this locus revealing a potential
- 16 ecological role for *Hopscotch* in teosinte, but a greenhouse experiment does not detect a strong
- 17 association between tb1 and tillering in teosinte.
- 18 Conclusions: Our findings suggest the role of Hopscotch differs between maize and teosinte.
- 19 Future work should assess tb1 expression levels in teosinte with and without the Hopscotch and
- 20 more comprehensively phenotype teosinte to assess the ecological significance of the Hopscotch
- 21 insertion and, more broadly, the tb1 locus in teosinte.
- 22 Key words: domestication; maize; teosinte; teosinte branched1; transposable element

#### INTRODUCTION

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 $\mathbf{2}$ Domesticated crops and their wild progenitors provide an excellent system in which to study 3 adaptation and genomic changes associated with human-mediated selection (Ross-Ibarra et al., 2007). Plant domestication usually involves a suite of phenotypic changes such as loss of seed 4 shattering and increased fruit or grain size, which are commonly referred to as the 'domestication syndrome' (Olsen and Wendel, 2013), and much of the study of domestication has focused on understanding the genetic variation underlying these traits (Olsen and Gross, 2010). Because most domesticates show reduced genetic diversity relative to their wild counterparts, effort has been made to identify agronomically useful variation in crop wild relatives (Flint-Garcia et al., 10 2009). Often, after identification, the alleles conferring these beneficial traits are bred into domesticates for crop improvement. For example, Oryza rufipogon, the wild progenitor of 11 domesticated rice, has proven useful for the integration of a number of beneficial QTL controlling 1213 traits such as grain size and yield into domesticated rice (Kovach and McCouch, 2008). In addition to researching the role of wild alleles in domesticates, researchers have also investigated 14 the role of variation in domesticated taxa in the evolution of feral and weedy populations 15 (Ellstrand et al., 2010). But even though domesticated alleles are often found segregating in wild 16 relatives (Gallavotti et al., 2004; Sigmon and Vollbrecht, 2010), we know almost nothing about 17 the ecological role of this variation in natural populations. In this paper we present an ecological 18 genetic analysis of the domestication locus tb1, and specifically the domesticated haplotype at tb1, 19 in natural populations of the wild ancestor of domesticated maize. 20 21 Maize (Zea mays ssp. mays) was domesticated from the teosinte Zea mays ssp. parviglumis 22 (hereafter, parviglumis) roughly 9,000 B.P. in southwest Mexico (Piperno et al., 2009; Matsuoka et al., 2002). Maize and the teosintes are an attractive system in which to study domestication 23 due to the abundance of genetic tools developed for maize and well-characterized domestication 24 loci (Hufford et al., 2012a; Doebley, 2004; Hufford et al., 2012b). Additionally, large, 25 naturally-occurring populations of both parviglumis and the highland teosinte Zea mays ssp. 26 mexicana (hereafter, mexicana) can be found throughout Mexico (Wilkes, 1977; Hufford et al., 27 2013), and genetic diversity of these taxa is estimated to be high (Ross-Ibarra et al., 2009). 28 **29** Many morphological changes are associated with maize domestication, and understanding the genetic basis of these changes has been a focus of maize research for a number of years (Doebley, 30 2004). One of the most dramatic changes is found in plant architecture: domesticated maize is 31

characterized by a central stalk with few tillers and lateral branches terminating in a female inflorescence, while teosinte is highly tillered and bears tassels (male inflorescences) at the end of 3 its lateral branches. The teosinte branched1 (tb1) gene, a repressor of organ growth, was identified as a major QTL involved in branching (Doebley et al., 1995) and tillering (Doebley and Stec, 1991) differences between maize and teosinte. A 4.9 kb retrotransposon (Hopscotch) insertion into the upstream control region of tb1 in maize acts to enhance expression of tb1, thus repressing lateral organ growth (Doebley et al., 1997; Studer et al., 2011). Dating of the 7 Hopscotch retrotransposon suggests that its insertion predates the domestication of maize, leading to the hypothesis that it was segregating as standing variation in populations of teosinte and 9 10 increased to high frequency in maize due to selection during domestication (Studer et al., 2011). The effects of the *Hopscotch* insertion have been studied in maize (Studer et al., 2011), and 11 **12** analysis of teosinte alleles at tb1 has identified functionally distinct allelic classes (Studer and Doebley, 2012), but little is known about the role of tb1 or the Hopscotch insertion in natural 13 populations of teosinte. Previous studies have confirmed the presence of the Hopscotch in samples 14 of parviglumis, mexicana, and landrace maize; however little is known about the frequency with **15** which the *Hopscotch* is segregating in natural populations. 16 17 In teosinte and other plants that grow at high population density, individuals detect competition from neighbors via the ratio of red to far-red light. An increase in far-red relative to 18 red light accompanies shading and triggers the shade avoidance syndrome, a suite of physiological 19 20 and morphological changes such as reduced tillering, increased plant height and early flowering 21 (Kebrom and Brutnell, 2007). The tb1 locus appears to play an important role in the shade 22avoidance pathway in Zea mays (Lukens and Doebley, 1999) and other grasses (Kebrom and 23 Brutnell, 2007) via changes in expression levels in response to shading. Lukens and Doebley 24 (1999) introgressed the teosinte tb1 allele into a maize inbred background and noted that under low density conditions plants were highly tillered but that under high density, plants showed **25** significantly reduced tillers and grew taller. Based on these results we hypothesize that the 26 Hopscotch (i.e., the domesticated allele) at tb1 may play a role in the ecology of teosinte, 27 especially in high-density populations. In this study we aim to characterize the distribution of the 28 **29** Hopscotch insertion in parviglumis, mexicana, and landrace maize, and to examine the phenotypic effects of the insertion in parviglumis. We use a combination of PCR genotyping for the 30 31 Hopscotch element in our full panel and sequencing of two small regions upstream of tb1

combined with a larger SNP dataset in a subset of teosinte populations to explore patterns of

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- 2 genetic variation at this locus. Finally, we test for an association between the Hopscotch element
- 3 and tillering phenotypes in samples from a natural population of parviglumis.

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#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sampling and genotyping—We sampled 1,110 individuals from 350 accessions (247 maize 5 landraces, 17 mexicana populations, and 86 parviglumis populations; ranging from 1-38 6 7 individuals per population, with an average of 11 individuals per population for parviglumis and mexicana and 2 individuals per landrace accession) and assessed the presence or absence of the 9 Hopscotch insertion (Appendix 1 and Appendix 2, See Supplemental Materials with the online version of this article). DNA was extracted from leaf tissue using a modified CTAB approach **10** (Doyle and Doyle, 1990; Maloof et al., 1984). We designed primers using PRIMER3 (Rozen and 11 Skaletsky, 2000) implemented in Geneious (Kearse et al., 2012) to amplify the entire Hopscotch **12** element, as well as an internal primer allowing us to simultaneously check for possible PCR bias 13 14 between presence and absence of the *Hopscotch* insertion due to its large size ( $\sim$ 5kb). Two PCRs 15 were performed for each individual, one with primers flanking the Hopscotch (HopF/HopR) and one with a flanking primer and an internal primer (HopF/HopIntR). Primer sequences are HopF, 16 5'-TCGTTGATGCTTTGATGGATGG-3'; HopR, 5'-AACAGTATGATTTCATGGGACCG-3'; and 17 HopIntR, 5'-CCTCCACCTCTCATGAGATCC-3' (Appendix 3 and Appendix 4, See Supplemental 18 19 Materials with the online version of this article). Homozygotes show a single band for absence of the element ( $\sim 300$ bp) and two bands for presence of the element ( $\sim 5$ kb, amplification of the 20 21 entire element, and  $\sim 1.1$ kb, amplification of part of the element), whereas heterozygotes show all three bands (Appendix 2, See Supplemental Materials with the online version of this article). 22 23 Since we developed a PCR protocol for each allele, if only one PCR resolved well, we scored one 24 allele for that individual rather than infer the diploid genotype. We used Phusion High Fidelity Enzyme (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) and the following 25 conditions for amplifications: 98°C for 3 min, 30 cycles of 98°C for 15 s, 65°C for 30 s, and 72°C 26 for 3 min 30 s, with a final extension of 72°C for 10 min. PCR products were visualized on a 1% 27 **28** agarose gel and scored for presence/absence of the *Hopscotch* based on band size. Genotyping analysis—To calculate differentiation between populations (F<sub>ST</sub>) and 29 subspecies (F<sub>CT</sub>) we used HierFstat (Goudet, 2005). These analyses only included populations 30 31 (n=32) in which eight or more chromosomes were sampled. To test the hypothesis that the Hopscotch insertion may be adaptive under certain environmental conditions, we looked for 32

- 1 significant associations between *Hopscotch* frequency and environmental variables using the
- 2 software BayEnv (Coop et al., 2010). BayEnv creates a covariance matrix of relatedness between
- 3 populations and then tests a null model that allele frequencies in populations are determined by
- 4 the covariance matrix of relatedness alone against the alternative model that allele frequencies are
- 5 determined by a combination of the covariance matrix and an environmental variable, producing
- 6 a posterior probability (i.e., Bayes Factor; Coop et al. 2010). We used teosinte (ssp. parviglumis
- 7 and ssp. mexicana) genotyping and covariance data from Pyhäjärvi et al. (2013) for BayEnv,
- 8 with the *Hopscotch* insertion coded as an additional biallelic marker. SNP data from Pyhäjärvi
- 9 et al. (2013) were obtained using the MaizeSNP50 BeadChip and Infinium HD Assay (Illumina,
- 10 San Diego, CA, USA). Environmental data were obtained from www.worldclim.org and soil data
- 11 were downloaded from the Harmonized World Soil Database (FAO/IIASA/ISRIC/ISSCAS/JRC,
- 12 2012) at www.harvestchoice.org. Environmental data represent average values for the last
- 13 several decades (climatic data) or are likely stable over time (soil data) and therefore represent
- 14 conditions important for local adaptation of our samples. Information from these data sets was
- 15 summarized by principle component analysis following Pyhäjärvi et al. (2013).
- **Sequencing**—In addition to genotyping, we chose a subset of *parviglumis* individuals for
- 17 sequencing. We chose twelve individuals from each of four populations from Jalisco state, Mexico
- 18 (San Lorenzo, La Mesa, Ejutla A, and Ejutla B). For amplification and sequencing, we selected
- 19 two regions approximately 600bp in size from within the 5' UTR of tb1 (Region 1) and from
- 20 1,235bp upstream of the start of the Hopscotch (66,169bp upstream from the start of the tb1
- 21 ORF; Region 2). We designed the following primers using PRIMER3 (Rozen and Skaletsky, 2000):
- 22 for the 5' UTR, 5-'GGATAATGTGCACCAGGTGT-3' and 5'-GCGTGCTAGAGACACYTGTTGCT-3';
- 23 for the 66kb upstream region, 5'-TGTCCTCGCCGCAACTC-3' and
- 24 5'-TGTACGCCCCCCCCTCATCA-3' (Appendix 1, See Supplemental Materials with the online
- 25 version of this article). We used Taq polymerase (New England Biolabs Inc., Ipswich,
- 26 Massachusetts, USA) and the following thermal cycler conditions to amplify fragments: 94°C for
- 27 3 min, 30 cycles of 92°C for 40 s, annealing for 1 min, 72°C for 40 s, and a final 10 min extension
- 28 at 72°C. Annealing temperatures for Region 1 and Region 2 were 59.7°C and 58.8°C, respectively.
- 29 To clean excess primer and dNTPs we added two units of Exonuclease1 and 2.5 units of Antarctic
- 30 Phosphatase to 8.0  $\mu$ L of amplification product. This mix was placed on a thermal cycler with
- 31 the following program: 37°C for 30 min, 80°C for 15 min, and a final cool-down step to 4°C.
- 32 We closed cleaned fragments into a TOPO-TA vector (Life Technologies, Grand Island, New

- 1 York, USA) using OneShot TOP10 chemically competent E. coli cells, with an extended ligation
- 2 time of 30 min for a complex target fragment. We plated cells on LB agar plates containing
- 3 kanamycin, and screened colonies using vector primers M13 Forward and M13 Reverse under the
- 4 following conditions: 96°C for 5 min; then 35 cycles at 96°C for 30 s, 53°C for 30 s, 72°C for 2
- 5 min; and a final extension at 72°C for 4 min. We visualized amplification products for
- 6 incorporation of our insert on a 1% agarose TAE gel.
- 7 Amplification products with successful incorporation of our insert were cleaned using
- 8 Exonuclease 1 and Antarctic Phosphatase following the procedures detailed above, and sequenced
- 9 with vector primers M13 Forward and M13 Reverse using Sanger sequencing at the College of
- 10 Agriculture and Environmental Sciences (CAES) sequencing center at UC Davis. We aligned and
- 11 trimmed primer sequences from resulting sequences using the software Geneious (Kearse et al.,
- 12 2012). Following alignment, we verified singleton SNPs by sequencing an additional one to four
- 13 colonies from each clone. If the singleton was not present in these additional sequences it was
- 14 considered an amplification or cloning error, and we replaced the base with the base of the
- 15 additional sequences. If the singleton appeared in at least one of the additional sequences we
- 16 considered it a real variant and kept it for further analyses.
- 17 Sequence analysis—For population genetic analyses of sequenced Region 1 and sequenced
- 18 Region 2 we used the Libsequence package (Thornton, 2003) to calculate pairwise F<sub>ST</sub> between
- 19 populations and to calculate standard diversity statistics (number of haplotypes, haplotype
- 20 diversity, Watterson's estimator  $\hat{\theta}_W$ , pairwise nucleotide diversity  $\hat{\theta}_{\pi}$ , and Tajima's D). To
- 21 produce a visual representation of differentiation between sequences and examine patterns in
- 22 sequence clustering by *Hopscotch* genotype we used Phylip
- 23 (http://evolution.genetics.washington.edu/phylip.html) to create neighbor-joining trees
- 24 with bootstrap-supported nodes (100 repetitions). For creation of trees we also included
- 25 homologous sequence data from Maize HapMapV2 (Chia et al., 2012) for teosinte inbred lines
- 26 (TILs), some of which are known to be homozygous for the *Hopscotch* insertion (TIL03, TIL17,
- 27 TIL09), as well as 59 lines of domesticated maize.
- 28 Introgression analysis—In order to assess patterns of linkage disequilibrium (LD) around
- 29 the Hopscotch element in the context of chromosomal patterns of LD we used Tassel (Bradbury
- 30 et al., 2007) and calculated LD between SNPs across chromosome 1 using previously published
- 31 data from twelve plants each of the Ejutla A (EjuA), Ejutla B (EjuB), San Lorenzo (SLO), and
- 32 La Mesa (MSA) populations (Pyhäjärvi et al., 2013). We chose these populations because we had

- 1 both genotyping data for the *Hopscotch* as well as chromosome-wide SNP data for chromosome 1.
- 2 For each population we filtered the initial set of 5,897 SNPs on chromosome 1 to accept only
- 3 SNPs with a minor allele frequency of at least 0.1, resulting in 1,671, 3,023, 3,122, and 2,167
- 4 SNPs for SLO, EjuB, EjuA, and MSA, respectively. We then used Tassel (Bradbury et al., 2007)
- 5 to calculate linkage disequilibrium  $(r^2)$  across chromosome 1 for each population.
- **6** We examined evidence of introgression on chromosome 1 in these same four populations
- 7 (EjuA, EjuB, MSA, SLO) using STRUCTURE (Falush et al., 2003) and phased data from
- 8 Pyhäjärvi et al. (2013), combined with the corresponding SNP data from a diverse panel of 282
- 9 maize lines (Cook et al., 2012). SNPs were anchored in a modified version of the IBM genetic
- 10 map (Gerke et al., 2013). Since STRUCTURE does not account for LD due to physical linkage we
- 11 created haplotype blocks using a custom Perl script from Hufford et al. (2013, code available at
- 12 http://dx.doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.1165577). In maize, LD decays over an average
- 13 distance of 5500bp (Chia et al., 2012); because LD decay is even more rapid in teosinte (Chia
- 14 et al., 2012) we used a conservative haplotype block size of 5kb. We ran STRUCTURE at K=2
- 15 under the linkage model, performing 3 replicates with an MCMC burn-in of 10,000 steps and
- **16** 50,000 steps post burn-in.
- 17 Phenotyping of parviglumis—To investigate the phenotypic effects of the Hopscotch
- 18 insertion in teosinte we conducted a phenotyping trial in which we germinated 250 seeds of
- 19 parviglumis collected in Jalisco state, Mexico (population San Lorenzo; Hufford 2010) where the
- 20 Hopscotch insertion is segregating at highest frequency (0.44) in our initial genotyping sample set.
- 21 In order to maximize the likelihood of finding the Hopscotch in our association population we
- 22 selected seeds from sites within the population where genotyped individuals were homozygous or
- 23 heterozygous for the insertion. We chose between 10-13 seeds from each of 23 sampling sites. We
- 24 treated seeds with Captan fungicide (Southern Agricultural Insecticides Inc., Palmetto, Florida,
- 25 USA) and germinated them in petri dishes with filter paper. Following germination, 206
- 26 successful germinations were planted into one-gallon pots with potting soil and randomly spaced
- 27 one foot apart on greenhouse benches. Plants were watered three times a day with an automatic
- 28 drip containing 10-20-10 fertilizer, which was supplemented with hand watering on extremely hot
- 29 and dry days.
- 30 Starting on day 15, we measured tillering index as the ratio of the sum of tiller lengths to the
- 31 height of the plant (Briggs et al., 2007). Following initial measurements, we phenotyped plants for
- 32 tillering index every 5 days through day 40, and then on day 50 and day 60. On day 65 we

- 1 measured culm diameter between the third and fourth nodes of each plant. Following
- 2 phenotyping we extracted DNA from all plants using a modified SDS extraction protocol. We
- 3 genotyped individuals for the *Hopscotch* insertion following the PCR protocols listed above.
- 4 Tillering index data for each genotypic class did not meet the criteria for a repeated measures
- 5 ANOVA, so we transformed the data with a Box-Cox transformation ( $\lambda = 0$ ) in the Car Package
- 6 for R (Fox and Weisberg, 2011) to improve the normality and homogeneity of variance among
- 7 genotype classes. We analyzed relationships between genotype and tillering index and tiller
- 8 number using a repeated measures ANOVA through a general linear model function implemented
- 9 in SAS v.9.3 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA). Additionally, in order to compare any
- 10 association between *Hopscotch* genotype and tillering and associations at other presumably
- 11 unrelated traits, we performed an ANOVA between culm diameter and genotype using the same
- 12 general linear model in SAS. Culm diameter is not believed to be correlated with tillering index
- 13 or variation at tb1 and is used as our independent trait for phenotyping analyses. SAS code used
- 14 for analysis is available at http://dx.doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.1166630.

15 RESULTS

- **Genotyping**—The genotype at the *Hopscotch* insertion was confirmed with two PCRs for
- 17 837 individuals of the 1,100 screened. Among the 247 maize landrace accessions genotyped, all
- 18 but eight were homozygous for the presence of the insertion (Appendix 1 and Appendix 2, See
- 19 Supplemental Materials with the online version of this article). Within our parviglumis and
- 20 mexicana samples we found the Hopscotch insertion segregating in 37 (n = 86) and four (n = 17)
- 21 populations, respectively, and at highest frequency within populations in the states of Jalisco,
- 22 Colima, and Michoacán in central-western Mexico (Fig. 1). Using our *Hopscotch* genotyping, we
- 23 calculated differentiation between populations (F<sub>ST</sub>) and subspecies (F<sub>CT</sub>) for populations in
- 24 which we sampled eight or more individuals. We found that  $F_{CT} = 0$ , and levels of  $F_{ST}$  among
- 25 populations within each subspecies (0.22) and among all populations (0.23) are similar to
- 26 genome-wide estimates from previous studies (Pyhäjärvi et al. 2013; Table 1). Although we found
- 27 large variation in Hopscotch allele frequency among our populations, BayEnv analysis did not
- 28 indicate a correlation between the *Hopscotch* insertion and environmental variables (all Bayes
- **29** Factors < 1).
- 30 Sequencing—To investigate patterns of sequence diversity and linkage disequilibrium (LD)
- 31 in the tb1 region, we sequenced two small (<1kb) regions upstream of the tb1 ORF in four

- 1 populations. After alignment and singleton checking we recovered 48 and 40 segregating sites for
- 2 the 5' UTR region (Region 1) and the 66kb upstream region (Region 2), respectively. For Region
- 3 1, Ejutla A has the highest values of haplotype diversity and  $\theta_{\pi}$ , while Ejutla B and La Mesa have
- 4 comparable values of these summary statistics, and San Lorenzo has much lower values.
- 5 Additionally, Tajima's D is strongly negative in the two Ejutla populations and La Mesa, but is
- 6 closer to zero in San Lorenzo (Table 2, Appendix 2, See Supplemental Materials with the online
- 7 version of this article). For Region 2, haplotype diversity and  $\theta_{\pi}$ , are similar for Ejutla A and
- 8 Ejutla B, while La Mesa and San Lorenzo have slightly lower values for these statistics (Table 2).
- 9 Tajima's D is positive in all populations except La Mesa, indicating an excess of low frequency
- 10 variants in this population (Table 2). Pairwise values of F<sub>ST</sub> within population pairs Ejutla
- 11 A/Ejutla B and San Lorenzo/La Mesa are close to zero for both sequenced regions as well as for
- 12 the Hopscotch, while they are high for other population pairs (Table 1). Neighbor joining trees of
- 13 our sequence data and data from the teosinte inbred lines (TILs; data from Maize HapMapV2,
- 14 Chia et al. 2012) do not reveal any clear clustering pattern with respect to population or
- 15 Hopscotch genotype (Appendix 5, See Supplemental Materials with the online version of this
- 16 article); individuals within our sample that have the *Hopscotch* insertion do not group with the
- 17 teosinte inbred lines or domesticated maize that have the *Hopscotch* insertion.
- **Evidence of introgression**—The highest frequency of the *Hopscotch* insertion in teosinte
- 19 was found in parviglumis sympatric with cultivated maize. Our initial hypothesis was that the
- 20 high frequency of the Hopscotch element in these populations could be attributed to introgression
- 21 from maize into teosinte. To investigate this possibility we examined overall patterns of linkage
- 22 disequilibrium across chromosome one and specifically in the tb1 region. If the Hopscotch is found
- 23 in these populations due to recent introgression we would expect to find large blocks of linked
- 24 markers near this element. We find no evidence of elevated linkage disequilibrium between the
- 25 Hopscotch and SNPs surrounding the tb1 region in our resequenced populations (Figure 2), and
- 26  $r^2$  in the tb1 region does not differ significantly between populations with (average  $r^2$  of 0.085)
- 27 and without (average  $r^2 = 0.082$ ) the *Hopscotch* insertion. In fact, average  $r^2$  is lower in the tb1
- 28 region  $(r^2 = 0.056)$  than across the rest of chromosome 1  $(r^2 = 0.083;$  Table 3).
- The lack of clustering of *Hopscotch* genotypes in our NJ tree as well as the lack of LD around
- 30 tb1 do not support the hypothesis that the Hopscotch insertion in these populations of parviglumis
- 31 is the result of recent introgression. However, to further explore this hypothesis we performed a
- 32 STRUCTURE analysis using Illumina MaizeSNP50 data from four of our parviglumis populations

(EjuA, EjuB, MSA, and SLO) (Pyhäjärvi et al., 2013) and the maize 282 diversity panel (Cook et al., 2012). The linkage model implemented in STRUCTURE can be used to identify ancestry of blocks of linked variants which would arise as the result of recent admixture between populations.  $\mathbf{3}$ If the Hopscotch insertion is present in populations of parviglumis as a result of recent admixture with domesticated maize, we would expect the insertion and linked variants in surrounding sites to be assigned to the "maize" cluster in our STRUCTURE runs, not the "teosinte" cluster. In all runs, assignment to maize in the tb1 region across all four parviqlumis populations is low (average 7 0.017) and much below the chromosome-wide average (0.20; Table 4; Fig. 3). 9 **Phenotyping**—To assess the contribution of tb1 to phenotypic variation in tillering in a 10 natural population, we grew plants from seed sampled from the San Lorenzo population of parviglumis, which had a high mean frequency (0.44) of the Hopscotch insertion based on our 11 12initial genotyping. We measured tiller number and tillering index, the ratio of the sum of tiller lengths to plant height, for 206 plants from within the San Lorenzo population, and genotyped 13 plants for the *Hopscotch* insertion. We also measured culm diameter, a phenotype that differs 14 between maize and teosinte (Briggs et al., 2007) but is not thought to be affected by the 15 Hopscotch insertion. Phenotypic data are available at 16 http://dx.doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.776926. Our plantings produced 82 homozygotes 17 for the Hopscotch insertion at tb1, 104 heterozygotes, and 20 homozygotes lacking the insertion: 18 these numbers do not deviate from expectations of Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. After 19 performing a repeated measures ANOVA between our transformed tillering index data and 20 21 Hopscotch genotype we find no significant correlation between genotype at the Hopscotch insertion and tillering index (Fig. 4), tiller number, or culm diameter. Only on day 40 did we **22** observe a weak but statistically insignificant ( $r^2 = 0.02$ , p = 0.0848) correlation between tillering **23** index and the *Hopscotch* genotype, although in the opposite direction of that expected, with 24 homozygotes for the insertion showing a higher tillering index. **25** 26

### DISCUSSION

27 Adaptation occurs due to selection on standing variation or de novo mutations. Adaptation from standing variation has been well-described in a number of systems; for example, selection for 28 lactose tolerance in humans (Plantinga et al., 2012; Tishkoff et al., 2007), variation at the Eda **29** 30 locus in three-spined stickleback (Kitano et al., 2008; Colosimo et al., 2005), and pupal diapause in the Apple Maggot fly (Feder et al., 2003). Although the adaptive role of standing variation has 31

been described in many systems, its importance in domestication is not as well studied. 1  $\mathbf{2}$ In maize, alleles at domestication loci (RAMOSA1, Sigmon and Vollbrecht 2010; barren 3 stalk1, Gallavotti et al. 2004; and grassy tillers1, Whipple et al. 2011) are thought to have been selected from standing variation, suggesting that diversity already present in teosinte may have 4 played an important role in maize domestication. The teosinte branched gene is one of the best characterized domestication loci, and, while previous studies have suggested that differences in 6 plant architecture between maize and teosinte are a result of selection on standing variation at 7 this locus (Clark et al., 2006; Studer et al., 2011), much remains to be discovered regarding natural variation at this locus and its ecological role in teosinte. 9 10 Studer et al. (2011) genotyped 90 accessions of teosinte (inbred and outbred), providing the first evidence that the *Hopscotch* insertion is segregating in teosinte. Given that the *Hopscotch* 11 12insertion has been estimated to predate the domestication of maize, it is not surprising that it can be found segregating in populations of teosinte. However, by widely sampling across teosinte 13 populations our study provides greater insight into the distribution and prevalence of the 14 Hopscotch in teosinte. While our findings are consistent with Studer et al. (2011) in that we 15 identify the Hopscotch allele segregating in teosinte, we find it at higher frequency than 16 17 previously suggested. The Hopscotch allele is more prevalent in parviglumis than in mexicana in our sample (Appendix 1, See Supplemental Materials with the online version of this article), 18 suggesting a different history of the allele amongst teosinte subspecies. Moreover, many of our 19 20 parviglumis populations with a high frequency of the Hopscotch allele fall in the Jalisco cluster identified by Fukunaga et al. (2005), and further distinguish this region from the Balsas River 21 Basin where maize was domesticated (Matsuoka et al., 2002). Potential explanations for the high 22frequency of the Hopscotch element in parviglumis from the Jalisco cluster include gene flow from 23 24 maize, genetic drift, and natural selection. 25 While gene flow from crops into their wild relatives is well-known, (Ellstrand et al., 1999; Zhang et al., 2009; Thurber et al., 2010; Baack et al., 2008; Hubner et al., 2012; Wilkes, 1977; van **26** Heerwaarden et al., 2011; Barrett, 1983), our results do not suggest introgression from maize at 27 the tb1 locus, and are more consistent with Hufford et al. (2013) who found resistance to 28 introgression from maize into mexicana around domestication loci. Clustering in our NJ trees 29 does not reflect the pattern expected if maize alleles at the tb1 locus had introgressed into 30 31 populations of teosinte. Moreover, there is no signature of elevated LD in the tb1 region relative to the rest of chromosome 1, and Bayesian assignment to a maize cluster in this region is both low 32

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and below the chromosome-wide average (Fig. 3, Table 4). Together, these data point to an
    explanation other than recent introgression for the high observed frequency of Hopscotch in the
 \mathbf{3}
    Jalisco cluster of our parviglumis populations.
        Although recent introgression seems unlikely, we cannot rule out ancient introgression as an
 4
    explanation for the presence of the Hopscotch in these populations. If the Hopscotch allele was
    introgressed in the distant past, recombination may have broken up LD, a process that would be
 6
    consistent with our data. We find this scenario less plausible, however, as there is no reason why
 7
    gene flow should have been high in the past but absent in present-day sympatric populations. In
    fact, early generation maize-teosinte hybrids are common in these populations today (MB
10
    Hufford, pers. observation), and genetic data support ongoing gene flow between domesticated
    maize and both mexicana and parviglumis in a number of sympatric populations (Hufford et al.,
11
12
    2013; Ellstrand et al., 2007; van Heerwaarden et al., 2011; Warburton et al., 2011).
13
        Remaining explanations for differential frequencies of the Hopscotch among teosinte
    populations include both genetic drift and natural selection. Previous studies using both SSRs
14
    and genome-wide SNP data have found evidence for a population bottleneck in the San Lorenzo
15
    population (Hufford, 2010; Pyhäjärvi et al., 2013), and the lower levels of sequence diversity in
16
17
    this population in the 5' UTR (Region 1) coupled with more positive values of Tajima's D are
    consistent with these earlier findings. Such population bottlenecks can exaggerate the effects of
18
    genetic drift through which the Hopscotch allele may have risen to high frequency entirely by
19
    chance. A bottleneck in San Lorenzo, however, does not explain the high frequency of the
20
    Hopscotch in multiple populations in the Jalisco cluster. Moreover, available information on
21
22
    diversity and population structure among Jaliscan populations (Hufford, 2010; Pyhäjärvi et al.,
    2013) is not suggestive of recent colonization or other demographic events that would predict a
23
24
    high frequency of the allele across populations. Finally, diversity values in the 5' UTR of tb1 are
    suggestive of natural selection acting upon the gene in populations of parviglumis. Overall
25
    nucleotide diversity is 76% less than seen in the sequences from the 66kb upstream region, and
26
    Tajima's D is considerably lower and consistently negative across populations (Table 2). In fact,
27
    values of Tajima's D in the 5' UTR are toward the extreme negative end of the distribution of
28
29
    this statistic previously calculated across loci sequenced in parviglumis (Wright et al., 2005;
    Moeller et al., 2007). Though not definitive, these results are consistent with the action of
30
31
    selection on the upstream region of tb1, perhaps suggesting an ecological role for the gene in
    Jaliscan populations of parviglumis.
32
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Significant effects of the Hopscotch insertion on lateral branch length, number of cupules, and
 1
 \mathbf{2}
    tillering index in domesticated maize have been well documented (Studer et al., 2011). Weber
    et al. (2007) described significant phenotypic associations between markers in and around tb1 and
 \mathbf{3}
    lateral branch length and female ear length in a sample from 74 natural populations of
    parviglumis (Weber et al., 2007); however, these data did not include markers from the Hopscotch
    region 66kb upstream of tb1. Our study is the first to explicitly examine the phenotypic effects of
 6
    the Hopscotch insertion across a wide collection of individuals sampled from natural populations
 7
    of teosinte. We have found no significant effect of the Hopscotch insertion on tillering index or
    tiller number, a result that is discordant with its clear phenotypic effects in maize. One
 9
10
    interpretation of this result would be that the Hopscotch controls tillering in maize (Studer et al.,
    2011), but tillering in teosinte is affected by variation at other loci. Consistent with this
11
12
    interpretation, tb1 is thought to be part of a complex pathway controlling branching, tillering and
    other phenotypic traits (Kebrom and Brutnell, 2007; Clark et al., 2006).
13
        A recent study by Studer and Doebley (2012) examined variation across traits in a three-taxa
14
    allelic series at the tb1 locus. Studer and Doebley (2012) introgressed nine unique teosinte tb1
15
    segments (one from Zea diploperennis, and four each from mexicana and parviglumis) into an
16
17
    inbred maize background and investigated their phenotypic effects. Phenotypes were shown to
    cluster by taxon, indicating tb1 may underlie morphological diversification of Zea. Additional
18
    analysis in Studer and Doebley (2012) suggested tillering index was controlled both by tb1 and
19
    loci elsewhere in the genome. Clues to the identity of these loci may be found in QTL studies
20
    that have identified loci controlling branching architecture (e.g., Doebley and Stec 1991, 1993).
21
22
    Many of these loci (grassy tillers, gt1; tassel-replaces-upper-ears1, tru1; terminal ear1, te1) have
    been shown to interact with tb1 (Whipple et al., 2011; Li, 2012), and both tru1 and te1 affect the
23
 1
    same phenotypic traits as tb1 (Doebley et al., 1995). tru1, for example, has been shown to act
    either epistatically or downstream of tb1, affecting both branching architecture (decreased apical
    dominance) and tassel phenotypes (shortened tassel and shank length and reduced tassel number;
 \mathbf{3}
    Li 2012). Variation in these additional loci may have affected tillering in our collections and
    contributed to the lack of correlation we see between Hopscotch genotype and tillering.
 5
        In conclusion, our findings demonstrate that the Hopscotch allele is widespread in populations
 6
    of parviglumis and mexicana and occasionally at high allele frequencies. Analysis of linkage using
    SNPs from across chromosome 1 does not suggest that the Hopscotch allele is present in these
    populations due to recent introgression, and it seems unlikely that the insertion would have
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drifted to high frequency in multiple populations. We do, however, find preliminary evidence of 10 selection on the tb1 locus in parviglumis. Coupled with our observation of high frequency of the 11 **12** Hopscotch insertion in a number of populations, this suggests that the locus may play an ecological role in teosinte. 13 14 In contrast to domesticated maize, the Hopscotch insertion does not appear to have a large effect on tillering in a diverse sample of parviglumis from a natural population and the phenotypic **15** consequences of variation at tb1 thus remain unclear. Future studies should examine expression **16** levels of tb1 in teosinte with and without the Hopscotch insertion and further characterize the 17 effects of additional loci involved in branching architecture (e.g. qt1, tru1, and te1). These data, 18 19 in conjunction with more exhaustive phenotyping, should help to further clarify the ecological

significance of the domesticated tb1 allele in natural populations of teosinte.

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Table 1. Pairwise  $\mathbf{F}_{\mathrm{ST}}$  values from sequence and Hopscotch genotyping data

Comparison	Region 1	Region 2	Hopscotch
EjuA & EjuB	0	0	0
EjuA & MSA	0.326	0.328	0.186
EjuA & SLO	0.416	0.258	0.280
EjuB & MSA	0.397	0.365	0.188
EjuB & SLO	0.512	0.290	0.280
MSA & SLO	0.007	0	0.016

Table 2. Population genetic statistics from resequenced regions near the tb1 locus

Population	# Haplotypes	Hap. Diversity	$\hat{ heta}_{\pi}$	Tajima's D	
Region 1(5' UTR)					
EJUA	8	0.859	0.005	-1.650	
EJUB	5	0.709	0.004	-1.831	
MSA	6	0.682	0.004	-1.755	
SLO	3	0.318	0.001	-0.729	
Region 2 (66kb upstream)					
EJUA	8	0.894	0.018	0.623	
EJUB	8	0.894	0.016	0.295	
MSA	3	0.682	0.011	-0.222	
SLO	4	0.742	0.014	0.932	

Table 3. mean  $r^2$  values between SNPs on chromosome 1, in the broad tb1 region, within the 5' UTR of tb1 (Region 1), and 66kb upstream of tb1 (Region 2).

Population	Chr. 1	tb1 region	Region 1	Region 2
Ejutla A	0.095	0.050	0.747	0.215
Ejutla B	0.069	0.051	0.660	0.186
La Mesa	0.070	0.053	0.914	0.766
San Lorenzo	0.101	0.067	0.912	0.636

Table 4. Assignments to maize and teosinte in the tb1 and chromosome 1 regions from STRUCTURE

	tb1 region		Chr 1	
Population	Maize	Teosinte	Maize	Teosinte
Ejutla A	0.022	0.978	0.203	0.797
Ejutla B	0.019	0.981	0.187	0.813
La Mesa	0.012	0.988	0.193	0.807
San Lorenzo	0.016	0.984	0.205	0.795

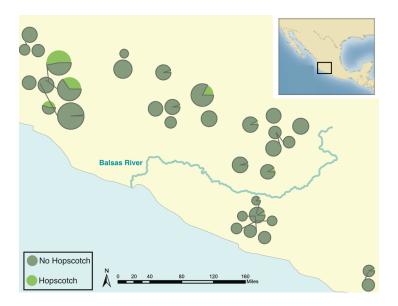


Figure 1. Map showing the frequency of the *Hopscotch* allele in populations of *parviglumis* where we sampled more than 6 individuals. Size of circles reflects number of alleles sampled. The Balsas River is shown, as the Balsas River Basin is believed to be the center of domestication of maize.

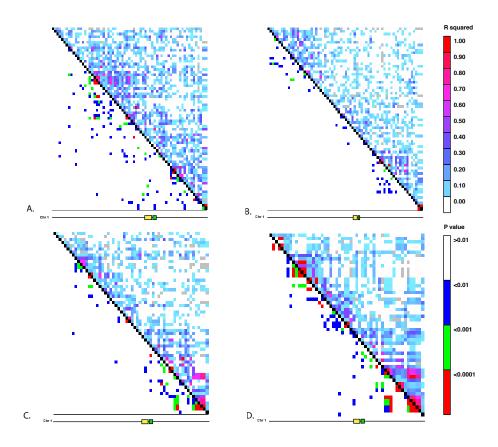


Figure 2. Linkage disequilibrium for SNPs in Mb 261-268 on chromosome 1. The yellow rectangle indicates the location of the Hopscotch insertion and the green represents the tb1 ORF. A) Ejutla A; B) Ejutla B; C) La Mesa; D) San Lorenzo. The upper triangle above the black diagonal is colored based on the  $r^2$  value between SNPs while the bottom triangle is colored based on p-value for the corresponding  $r^2$  value.

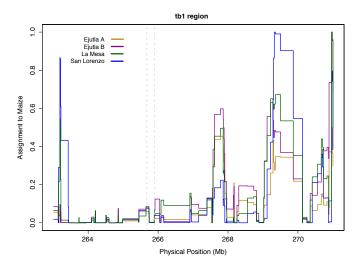


Figure 3. STRUCTURE assignment to maize across a section of chromosome 1. The dotted lines mark the beginning of the sequenced region 66kb upstream (Region 2) and the end of the tb1 ORF.

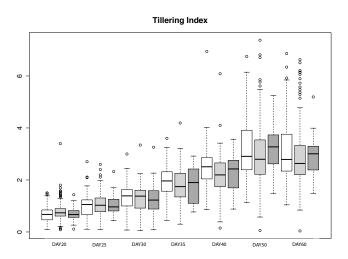


Figure 4. Box-plots showing tillering index in greenhouse grow-outs for phenotyping. White indicates individuals homozygous for the *Hopscotch*, light grey represents heterozygotes, and dark grey represents homozygotes for the teosinte (No *Hopscotch*) allele. Within boxes, dark black lines represent the median, and the edges of the boxes are the first and third quartiles. Outliers are displayed as dots, the maximum value excluding outliers is shown with the top whisker, while the minimum excluding outliers is shown with the bottom whisker.